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ABSTRACT

The literature on motivation theory is growing rapidly due to increased interest by leaders in all types of organizations in social-psychology variables such as internal commitment and motivation to work. This paper presents an overview of motivational research, covering early behavior theories such as scientific management and human relations, and then discusses three major categories of contemporary motivation theory: content theories, process theories, and reinforcement theory. Content theories, like those developed by Maslow, deal with basic concepts of needs that begin, stimulate, or cause behavior. Process theories are concerned with understanding the reasoning behind the choice of a particular behavior pattern to accomplish work goals. The reinforcement theory of motivation is briefly defined in Skinner's terms: individuals are passive, merely mediating between forces, and study of human motivation should focus on measurable and observable behavior rather than needs or goals. An integrative motivational model is presented, and practical applications of current motivational research are examined. The concluding statements note that, although much of the theoretical and empirical material on motivation is contradictory, increased practical application of the knowledge gained by research is needed to find solutions for current organizational dilemmas. (FG)

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THE CURRENT STATE OF RESEARCH ON MOTIVATION

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SYNOPSIS

This paper is about the current state of research on motivation. First, the concept of motivation is defined. Second, the roots of motivational theory are considered. Third, some early theories of motivation are discussed. Fourth, three contemporary theories and examples of these theories are presented. Fifth, an integrative model is offered. Sixth, the application of motivation theory to work situations is discussed. Last, some concluding comments are made.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Currently the term "motivation" is an "in" word in the fields of psychology, sociology, management, education, religion and consumerism. The literature, both theoretical and empirical, on motivating people in a wide range of walks of life is growing rapidly in volume, if slowly in agreement. Increasing research, theorizing and theory-building during the past thirty years have broadened the concept of motivation to such an extent that there is little consensus about its meaning, arousal or control.

Leaders in all types of organizations are continually faced with the problem that there are vast differences in the performance levels of employees. On the one hand, some employees need constant supervision, produce little results and are often absent. In contrast other employees are self-directed, have high production levels, and appear to enjoy their work.

There are many complex reasons for the variation in performance level. Personal attributes, such as personality, ability and background, may account for some of these differences. Other factors, such as organizational structure, the nature of the work, the leader's style, the reward system, the climate of the organization, may also contribute to these variables in performance. The central concept related to each of these factors is motivation.

In the education field, evidence is mounting that significant changes in school effectiveness will not come about as a result of increasing salaries of teachers, decreasing class size, introducing new teaching materials, increasing the academic training or certification of credentials

of teachers, reducing the work load, introducing clerical assistants, or using performance contracts.[1] These all contribute to effectiveness but their potency cannot compare with powerful social-psychology variables such as internal commitment and motivation to work.

In a broader sense, there are other reasons why motivation is an important topic of interest. First, there has been a radical change in the view that managers have of employees. No longer is the worker viewed as being motivated by money alone; other factors such as achievement, job challenge, the nature of the work group and advancement are also being considered.[2] Second, and closely related to the above, is the growing perspective of considering the human resources of the organization for long-term development and growth through the use of such strategies as job design, management by objectives, and skills training. Last, the importance of maintaining levels of organizational effectiveness and efficiency through the effective utilization of all the resources--financial, physical and human.[3] So, motivation is a very important topic and leaders in all organizations need approaches to acquire, motivate, and retain valuable human resources. In the next section of the paper, motivation is defined.

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[1] F. Mosteller and D. P. Moyniham, eds., On Equality of Educational Opportunity: Papers Deriving from the Harvard University Faculty Seminar on the Coleman Report (New York: Random House, 1972).

[2] C. Perrow, Complex Organizations (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972).

[3] R. M. Steers and L. W. Porter, Motivation and Work Behavior (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), p. 4.

2. DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

The term "motivation" originates from the Latin word "movere" which means "to move." This definition, however, is far too narrow to describe a very complex process. Given the obvious importance and complexity of motivation, it still remains an illusive concept to define and understand.

Psychologists and sociologists usually seek explanations for individual and group behavior respectively on the basis of their preferred theories on motivation. Jones claims that the purpose of motivation theory is to explain "how behavior gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism.[4] Nord's concept of motivation is that it "encompasses the variables responsible for the initiation, direction and intensity of behavior."[5] A knowledge of these variables, Nord suggests, would conceivably result in their more ready manipulation "to affect the maximum contribution of people towards organizational goals.[6] The following definition of motivation is consistent with the view of Jones and Nord:

> Motivation is the recognition by a person of a situation that he feels stimulated to complete or which stimulates him to contribute to its stability or modification. It is a general term used to refer to any arousal of an individual to goal-directed behavior.[7]

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[4] M. R. Jones, "Nebraska Symposim on Motivation," eds. V. H. Vroom and E. L. Deci, Management and Motivation (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1970), p. 160.

[5] W. Nord, Concepts and Controversy in Organizational Behavior (California: Goodyear, 1972), p. 44.

[6] Loc. cit.

[7] G. A. Theodorson and A. G. Theodorson, A Modern Dictionary of Sociology (London: Methuen, 1970), p. 267.

Jackson and Shea[8] further clarify the meaning of human motivation by contrasting the states of motivated and unmotivated people. The former are "turned on," deeply committed toward some objective or goal, pursue it with energy and enthusiasm and refuse to be distracted by competing concerns. The latter are "turned off," are dull, uncreative, unspontaneous, filled with anxiety and hesitate to translate thoughts into action. Faber and Shearron define motivation as the drive that causes a person to do something or to act in a certain way.[9] Hoy and Miskel define motivation as "the complex of forces, drives, needs, tensions, states, or other internal psychological mechanisms that start and maintain activity toward the achievement of personal goals."[10]

Although there is considerable agreement on what human motivation in simplistic terms means and what motivation theory aims to do there are wide divergences of opinions on the extent that movitation influences behavior and the nature of the theories postulated to explain such influence. Added to this, a rapidly growing body of empirical research is sharply divided in the degree of support it lends to the validity of well known pioneer and more recent theories. Hence, motivation theorists have developed different viewpoints of motivation, which place emphasis on different concepts. In general, a number of different conclusions result from these different views about motivation:

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[8]K. W. Jackson and D. J. Shea, "Motivation Training in Perspective," ed. W. Nord, Concepts and Controversy in Organizational Behavior (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1970), p. 102.

[9]C. F. Faber and G. F. Shearron, Elementary School Administration (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), p. 179.

[10]W. Hoy and C. Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice (New York: Random House, 1978), p. 96.

1. The analysis of motivation should concentrate on factors that arouse or incite a person's activities.[11]
2. Motivation is process oriented, and concerns choice, direction and goals.[12]
3. Motivation also concerns how behavior is started, sustained, or stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the person while this is going on.[13]

These definitions will serve as a basis for our discussion of theories of motivation. In the next section some early theories of motivation are considered.

3. EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The scientific study of motivation as a central psychological, sociological and organizational phenomenon is limited to this century. It has been claimed that motivation became a central variable in behavior theories, "coincidentally with the change from viewing mind as 'structure' to viewing mind as 'function'."[14] Freud's psychoanalysis, McDougall's purposive psychology and Dewey's functionalism also emerged during this period.

Most theories of motivation--both early and current--are based on Cognitive, Hedonistic, Instinct and Drive Theories. As Murray states:

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[11] J. W. Atkinson, An Introduction to Motivation (Princeton: Van Nostrand, 1964).

[12] J. Gibson, J. Ivancevich, and J. Donnelly, Organizations (Dallas: Business Publications, 1976).

[13] M. R. Jones, ed., Nebraska Symposium of Motivation (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955).

[14] D. S. Sills, ed., International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (New York: Macmillan, Vol. 10, 1968), p. 507.

"There is no single generally accepted theoretical framework for motivation. Instead there are a number of competing conceptions inherited from philosophy or borrowed from biology."[15]

Cognitive theory can be traced back to early Greek philosophers who believed that man is a rational being with conscious desires and the will to fulfill them. This view, which holds that "will" is one of the faculties of the mind, is not supported by psychologists today. Kelly writes in support of this theory of motivation by stating that "the decision a man makes depends on his personal constructs--his ideas, values and attitudes about the world."[16]

The underlying principles of hedonistic theory is based on the idea that individuals behave in a manner to seek pleasure and to minimize displeasure. This concept also dates back to the early Greek philosophers and later emerged in writings of Locke, Mill and Bentham in the 18th and 19th centuries.[17] Few psychologists now accept it in its crude form but it has become the basis for some neo-hedonic need theories. For example, in 1955 McClelland proposed an "affective-arousal" model which was a sophisticated version of the hedonistic theory. He stated that "motivation consists in the learned anticipations or expectations of a goal arousing positive or negative emotional reactions.[18]

Instinct theory, which was developed from Darwin's theory of evolution, was changed by Freud and McDougall in the early 20th century. McDougall

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[15] E. M. Murray, Motivation and Emotion (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 3.

[16] Ibid., p. 4.

[17] Steers and Porter, op. cit., p. 5.

[18] Murray, op. cit., p. 5.

viewed instincts as purposive, inherited, goal-seeking tendencies, which resulted in predetermined patterns of behavior.[19] This concept is particularly useful in the study of motivation because it can represent uniform behavior patterns functioning in self-maintenance or species maintenance. Internal physiological changes, acting in conjunction with specific external stimuli was believed to be the cause of instinctive behavior.

Even though instinct theory is still widely used to explain much of animal behavior, it is now little used to explain human behavior. The demise of this approach was caused by the use of "behavioral" theories of motivation which emphasized acquired rather than inherited human behavior. Despite this development, it is likely that human beings do possess some instinctive patterns of behavior. If they exist, they may not necessarily be fully or permanently under the control of instinctive processes but susceptible to the influence of acquired experiences.

Drive theory is of central importance to many current theories of motivation. This concept was introduced by Woodworth who used it to account for the "energy that impels an organism to action as opposed to the habits that steer behavior in one direction or another."[20] The motivating force of "drive theory" or "equilibrium creation" is based on the analagous biological concept of homeostasis or the physical concept of thermostatic control. Many of the body's systems automatically react to reduce disequilibrium while others, for example food gathering, have to be learned. Drive theorists seek to explain human behavior that satisfies not merely primary drives such as earning money to meet physiological needs, but also secondary drives derived from them. Drive theorists believe that

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[19] Murray, op. cit., p. 5.

[20] Ibid., p. 6.

deficiencies pertaining to both primary and secondary drives are responsible for the motivation of behavior. Nord states that despite increasing challenges to modern pure drive-reduction theories "they have been and still are the center of assumptions about motivation in American psychology."[21]

The foregoing would seem to have been rather a lengthy introduction to the topic under consideration. However, this has been done deliberately for two reasons. First, to emphasize the growing awareness of motivation and its complexity. Second, to demonstrate the competing schools of thought on the topic. Third, to point out that the principal emphasis on motivation as an organizational and administrative phenonemon is on man's behavior at work. All detribalized societies irrespective of their political philosophies and orientations are economically dependent on the patterns of work behavior and effectiveness exhibited by their members in small and large governmental and private enterprise. Repeated investigations have revealed wide individual variations in performance in all occupations. Peterson[22] showed that this was true amongst physicians when he examined the case records of fifteen hospitals to determine the justification for appendectomies. Pathology reports indicated that confirmed diagnoses varied from 70 percent to less than 20 percent. Work proficiency is dependent on such factors as motivation, aptitude, educational opportunity, training and emotional stability. Here the concern is with motivation.

Man's attitude to work has changed considerably over the centuries. The ancient Greeks regarded work as a burdensome curse, the Romans belittled

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[21] Nord, op. cit., p. 46.

[22] O. L. Peterson, "Medical Care in the United States," Scientific American, 209(2), 1963, p. 24.

all occupations except agriculture and big business, and the early Christians looked on work as God's punishment for man's sin. During the Renaissance and Reformation new attitudes to work were encouraged. Luther taught that work was a means of serving God, and Calvin preached that work was the will of God. Success in one's work or profession, according to Calvin, was indicative of God's pleasure. Many writers according to Bass and Barrett claim that the "Calvinistic doctrine gave birth to modern capitalism and the ideological foundation for the modern factory."[23] What Max Weber referred to as the Protestant ethic evolved from the concepts of economic survival in competitive enterprise and "knowing the value of a dollar." Together with these changing ideas about work, the concepts of managing work and workers have changed markedly from the time of the Industrial Revolution to the present.

An early conception of management during the Industrial Revolution was the "Theory of Dependence." According to this theory the laboring classes were regarded as unintelligent and devoid of initiative. Their superiors assigned tasks to them and provided for them if their task performances were satisfactory. As the Industrial Revolution spread the managerial class took the view that the laboring poor should be responsible for bettering their lot through their own efforts. Towards the end of the 19th century the implications of Darwin's theory of evolution proposed in 1859 were embraced by management. In industrial terms this meant competition at all levels. Managements' success was evidence of their fitness to manage and

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[23] B. M. Bass and G. V. Barrett, Man, Work and Organizations: An Introduction to Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972), p. 41.

the state of the laboring poor was indicative not merely of their unfitness to manage but their basic unfitness of survival.

So at the turn of the century the major theme of motivation theory began moving from a philosophical to a more psychological, and a more managerial approach. The theories that evolved attempted to explain the behavior of individuals through an investigation of variables that focused both on the individual and the situation of the individual.

These early managerial motivational theories (1910-1960) have been identified as prescriptive models because they purport to tell the manager how to motivate employees. Two approaches will be discussed below--Scientific Management and the Human Relations Movement.

3.1. Taylor: Scientific Management

The approach to managerial motivation, which developed from the works of F. W. Taylor, has been termed scientific management.[24] Taylor's approach to motivation addressed the study and design of work that would maximize worker efficiency. His techniques of management involved the systematic discovery of the optimal way and time of performing human tasks, and a new division of labor between management and worker. Management planned, instructed, supervised, timed and disciplined: the workers were regarded as mere instruments of production. It was obligatory for employees who after proper teaching and experience lacked the skill and dedication to perform the tasks in accordance with precisely determined requirements to be stood down. Social Darwinism was at the basis of Scientific Management. Successful employees were to be offered special incentives including rapid

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[24] F. W. Taylor, Scientific Management (New York: Harper and Row, 1911).

promotion, shorter hours and higher wages in the form of "generous" piece-work rates. Taylor maintained that everyone would benefit from Scientific Management: the employer through increased profits, the employee through increased earnings and society through cheaper goods.

In other words, Taylor believed that employees' efficiency would improve significantly by motivating them through these principles. High performance levels together with their careful recording, he believed, would stimulate workers. Added to this, higher daily remuneration, shorter hours and the prospect of promotion all served to motivate workers.

Ivancevich claimed that

> . . . the most fundamental problem with Taylor's approach from a motivational viewpoint concerned his rather simplistic assumption about the nature of human motivation. In particular, the individual is motivated to work by more than money; more recent research suggests that workers seek to satisfy a variety of needs in the workplace--the need for security, social fulfillment and a challenging job--and that they will respond to a variety of incentives, including pay to increase productivity.[25]

Despite this and other criticisms of Taylor's mechanistic view of employees it can be said that the scientific study of human motivation began with Taylor. However, it is only in recent years that there have been systematic attempts to "apply the conceptual and methodological tools of the behavioral sciences, particularly psychology, to the relationship between man's motivation and his work, as well as the managerial issues involved in that relationship."[26]

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[25] J. Ivancevich, et al, Organizational Behavior and Performance (Santa Monica: Goodyear Publishing, 1977), p. 101.

[26] Vroom and Deci, Management and Motivation, p. 10.

3.2. Human Relations Approach to Management

The Human Relations movement developed in reaction against the formal tradition of the scientific management models. Mayo and Roethlisberger of Harvard University were the first to question many of the basic assumptions and practices of the Scientific Management approach.[27]

From 1927-1932 a series of experiments were conducted that have remained one of the most influential research projects in the social sciences--the Hawthorne Studies.[28] It is outside the scope of this paper to describe these studies but a summary of the important conclusions are included as follows:

1. The economic incentive is not the only significant motivation. In fact, non-economic social sanctions limit the effectiveness of economic incentives.
2. Workers respond to management as members of an informal group, not as individuals.
3. Production levels are limited more by the social norms of the informal organization than by physiological capacities.
4. Specialization does not necessarily create the most efficient organization of the work group.
5. Workers use informal organization to protect themselves against arbitrary decisions of management.
6. Informal social organizations will interact with management.
7. A narrow span of control is not a prerequisite to effective supervision.
8. Informal leaders are often as important as formal supervisors.
9. Individuals are active human beings, not passive cogs in a machine.[29]

The management philosophy of the Scientific Management movement concentrated on the structure of the organization, speed, efficiency, high

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[27] E. Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Routledge and Kegan, 1949).

[28] F. N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), pp. 4-6.

[29] Hoy and Miskel, op. cit., pp. 10-11.

production, and high remuneration to generate worker satisfaction and happiness. In contrast the management philosophy of the Human Relations approach emphasized employees' motivation and satisfaction which produce efficient organizations.

Silverman[30] referred to some criticisms of arguments advanced by Human Relations proponents. He stated that when human relations techniques were tested experimentally they by no means always had the expected effect on productivity and work satisfaction. Factors like communication, he considered, might not be independent variables but dependent on organizational structures and design. Furthermore, there was a disregard for likely extra-organizational environmental influences and an underestimation of the measure of conflict between the satisfaction of individual needs and the attainment of organizational goals.

One of the major contributors to the Human Relations Movement was Douglas McGregor. In his principal work, he advanced two believes about human behavior that could be held by different managers--Theory X and Theory Y.[31]

McGregor argued that the conventional view of management is outdated. According to it, employees are indolent, recalcitrant and uncooperative by nature, and resistant to change. As a consequence management must direct and discipline them so that as far as possible their natural instincts are overcome and desirable attitudes aroused through the use of reward

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[30] D. Silverman, The Theory of Organizations (Loundon and Heineman, 1970), p. 76.

[31] D. McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

incentives. This "carrot-and-stick" philosophy which is allied to Scientific Management theory, McGregor designated "Theory X" and rejected.

McGregor proposed an alternative which he described as "Theory Y." According to it, workers' hostility towards management is not inherent in their personalities but is due to the failure of organizations to satisfy their needs. Following Maslow, he conceptualizes needs as hierarchical and only those that are not adequately satisfied influence motivation and behavior. Usually in organizations antagonism among workers is due to the higher-level needs of workers not being satisfied. Because these needs are usually associated with the intrinsic rather than the extrinsic rewards of work they cannot be satisfied directly by management. Organizations can, however, aim to provide appropriate conditions for workers to meet their needs themselves.

Theory Y is consistent with the concept of "management by objectives" in contrast to "management by control." It is a far cry from the Scientific Management concept of man as a mere instrument of production. McGregor concluded that the essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their goals best by directing their efforts towards organizational objectives.[32]

Ivancevich claimed that this approach has a number of major limitations:

> It provided little understanding of the basic elements of human motivation; it did not cover the fact that different individuals can be motivated by completely different aspects; too much emphasis was put on the informal group processes without relating this to the complexities of group dynamics; and the

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[32] D. McGregor. The Professional Manager (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 15.

fact that what is successful in one organization may not be successful in another organization.[33]

Despite these major limitations of this approach, the Human Relations movement had a great influence in changing the thinking and practice of behavioral scientists and managers in their approach to motivation. This movement also stimulated further inquiry into motivation and served as the foundation for the development of contemporary theories of motivation which are considered in Section 4.

4. CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

In the introduction, the various ways in which motivation has been approached in the past was surveyed. This variety of approaches has continued to the present and as a result a number of competing theories of motivation have developed.

Several classifications of these theories have been undertaken. For example, in the 1973 Annual Review of Psychology,[34] Miner and Dachler review theory-oriented research conducted since 1969 on "Personnel Attitudes and Motivation." They found that theoretical issues in satisfaction and work motivation warranted most attention, particulary since basically non-theoretical research reviews were available.

They divided the various theories, models and major hypotheses into two overlapping categories. The first included theories that focused mainly on the processes of motivation and satisfaction, while the second included

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[33] Ivancevich, et al, op. cit., p. 103.

[34] J. B. Miner and H. P. Dachler, "Personnel Attitudes and Motivation," 1973 Annual Review of Psychology, p. 379-402.

theories that focused primarily on content issues of motivation and satisfaction. Although they do not discuss job satisfaction and motivation separately they found that they should be differentiated. In the case of each category of theories they referred to studies which provided evidence that supported or negated them. Reference is made to approximately 120 recent studies.

Among the process theories they included Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy theories, Goal Setting and Intentional Behavior theories and Equity theory. In general they found that process theories lacked the precise articulation necessary for strong empirical support.

Content theories included those which emphasized particular motives or types of motives. Among these they listed Need Hierarchy and Self Actualization theory, Two-Factor Theory, Job Enlargement Theory and Theories of Occupation-Related Motives. Ivancevich stated that behavioral scientists have developed three major categories of contemporary motivation theories: content, process and reinforcement.[35] These categories, which are similar to Miner's and Dachler's, with the addition of reinforcement, will be considered in this section of the paper.

4.1. Content Theories

Content theories deal with the basic question of what it is that begins, stimulates or causes behavior. Various motivational theoriests have provided the answer to this question in their concepts of needs or motives that drive people and the incentives that cause them to behave in a particular manner. On the one hand, a need or motive is considered to

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[35] Ivancevich, et al, op. cit., p. 103.

be an internal quality of an individual, e.g., the need for food and security; whereas an incentive is valued and is an external aspect associated with the goal a person hopes to achieve through his actions, e.g., income from a job.

Argyris' Predispositions Model, Maslow's need hierarchy, Herzberg's two factor theory, and Alderfer's ERG theory are four of the most publicized and researched content theories of motivation--and these will now be considered in turn.

4.1.1. Argyris' Predispositions Model. The predisposition model was formulated by Argyris and has been a central theme in his writing since 1957.[36,37] He repeatedly has drawn attention to the incompatability of man's basic needs and the demands of the formal organization.

Argyris claimed that individuals are complex organisms that produce work energy for personal gain which can be understood in terms of individual needs. He also maintained that individual needs are influenced by the organizational context, even though he avoided specifying the exact nature, potency and degree of fulfillment.

He derived four continua of human behavior, using concepts from human socio-genetic development. He assumed that the thrust of a person's development begins in infancy and strives for completion in adulthood; further, that these innate human development processes are difficult to suppress or alter.

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[36] C. Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper, 1957).

[37] C. Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley, 1964).

With reference to his model he discussed many contemporary issues in management, including organizational structure, staffing, job design, control and incentives, and the evaluation, hiring and firing of employees. He agrees that management should give more consideration to basic values and endeavor to arrange the structure and operation of organizations to obtain the commitment of employees. Jobs should be thus structured so that individuals can: develop their many abilities; have increasing control over their lives; and be allowed to develop naturally toward the adult end of the continuum--the final result will be maximum motivation and maximum amount of work because the job meets the individual's predispositions.

Although idealistic and incomplete in detail, Argyris' emphasis on designing and operating organizations to take into account human needs and motivation as well as organizational objectives is one that is stressed in current literature. Dalton, Lawrence and Lorsch have been concerned with developing ways of tailoring the organization to its environment and to the complex needs of its members.[38] Lorsch and Lawrence hypothesized that "the internal functioning of the organization must be consistent with the demands of the organization task, technology or external environment and the needs of its members if the organization is to be effective."[39] Perrow claimed that understanding and modifying the nature of the environment and the structure of organizations are more effective ways of

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[38] G. W. Dalton, P. R. Lawrence, and J. W. Lorsch, Organizational Structure and Design (Homewood, Illinois: Irwin Dorsey, 1970), p. 16.

[39] J. W. Lorsch and P. R. Lawrence, eds., Studies in Organizational Design (Homewood, Illinois: Irwin Dorsey, 1969), p. 1.

influencing behavior than attempting to manipulate individual attitudes and group processes.[40]

Argyris' model has been criticized by Lichtman and Hunt who stated that it considered personality a constant and was limited because it explained individual differences only in terms of organizational position.[41] In reply Argyris stated that the personality model consisted of continua along which individuals varied, but the overall trends were from infancy to adult stages.[42]

4.1.2. Maslow's Need Hierarchy. Maslow proposed a theory that employees were motivated to perform by a desire to satisfy a set of internal needs.[43] He classified these needs in order of importance to the individual, as follows: physiological; safety and security; social; ego, status and esteem; and self-actualization. This hierarchy of needs is depicted in Diagram 1. Maslow assumed that: human beings are only motivated by unsatisfied needs; these needs are hierarchical and range from the basic to the complex; there is progress in needs satisfaction up the hierarchy only when the lowest needs are satisfied; needs which have been unsatisfied for a long period of time will serve to cause frustration, conflict, stress and defensive behaviors, depending on individual disposition, organizational and environmental factors.

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[40] C. Perrow, Organizational Analysis (London: Tavistock, 1970).

[41] C. M. Lichtman and R. G. Hunt, "Personality and Organization Theory: A Review of Some Conceptual Literature," Psychological Bulletin, 76, 1971, pp. 291-294.

[42] C. Argyris, "Personality and Organization Theory Revisited," Administrative Science Quarterly, 18, 1973, pp. 141-147.

[43] A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1954).

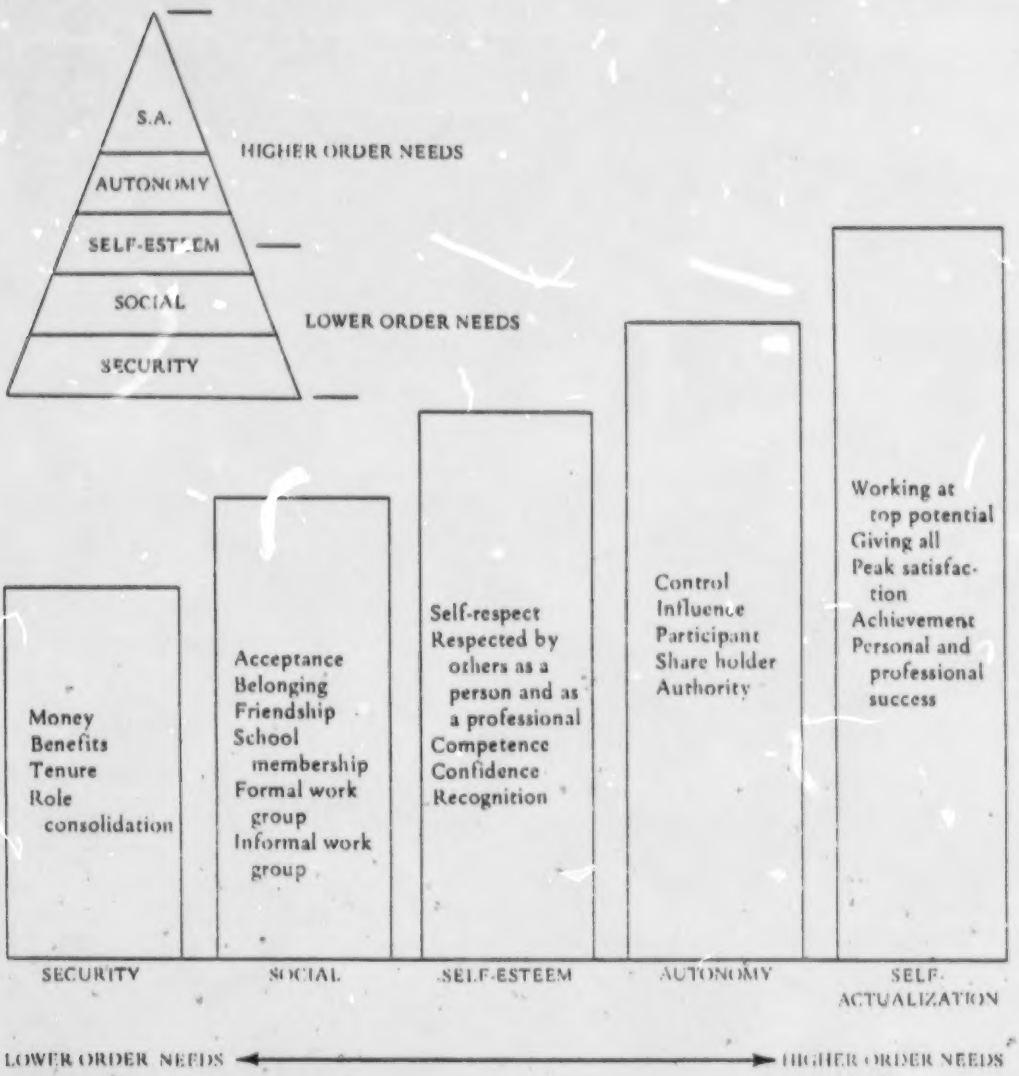

Diagram 1. THE NEEDS HIERARCHY

Note: Lower order needs are associated with hygiene work needs and provide the base for identifying hygiene factors. Higher order needs are associated with motivation work needs and provide the base for identifying motivation factors. From T. J. Sergiovanni and D. Elliott, Educational and Organizational Leadership in Elementary Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), p. 142.

The motivation theory proposed by Maslow precipitated a vast amount of literature and research on motivation--some supported it whilst much opposed it. For example, Roberts compiled a bibliography which listed over 200 periodical, dissertation, book, research paper and essay citations of works published between 1948 and 1972. Most of the works cited by 146 authors were published after 1965.[44]

Porter found, using a sample of 2000 managers, that managers higher in the organization chain of command placed great emphasis and were more satisfied with needs for esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization than were lower level managers.[45] In a further study, it was found that smaller company managers were more satisfied than their counterparts in larger companies and that managers at higher level in large companies were more satisfied than their counterparts in small companies.[46] Line managers were more satisfied than staff.[47] Managers working abroad were more satisfied with autonomy opportunities than were their counterparts working in the United States.[48] Porter also modified Maslow's model to include "autonomy

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[44]T. B. Roberts, Maslow's Human Motivation Needs Hierarchy: A Bibliography (DeKalb: Northern Illinois University, 1972).

[45]L. W. Porter, Organizational Patterns of Managerial Job Attitudes (New York: American Foundation for Management Research, 1964).

[46]L. W. Porter, "Job Attitudes in Management: IV Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Size of the Company," Journal of Applied Psychology, December, 1963, pp. 386-397.

[47]L. W. Porter, "Job Attitudes in Management: II Perceived Importance of Needs as a Function of Job Level," Journal of Applied Psychology, April, 1963, pp. 141-148.

[48]J. M. Ivancevich, "Perceived Need Satisfactions of Domestic Versus Overseas Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology August, 1969, pp. 274-278.

needs" which were between esteem and self-actualization because he felt that such concepts as authority, independent thought and action, and participation are logically distinct from more common esteem items such as prestige.[49] This distinction, coupled with the assumption that physiological needs are adequately satisfied for managerial level workers, enabled him to develop a need fulfillment questionnaire which basically supported Maslow's hierarchy.

A number of issues and criticisms have been raised about the theory and the viability of five need levels. Studies have found little support that a hierarchy of needs existed.[50] Davis criticized the five-way classification because in reality all needs are interconnected.[51] Further, individuals' needs should be viewed not in a static, but in a dynamic context. Also, needs must be continually and repeatedly fulfilled if an individual is to perform satisfactorily.[52] Schneider and Alderfer criticized Maslow's theory because the hierarchy concepts have been difficult to validate empirically.

Even though the theory lacks empirical support, it has gained wide acceptance because it is simple and has relevance to motivation problems in various kinds of organizations.

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[49] L. W. Porter, "A Study of Perceived Need Satisfactions in Bottom and Middle Management Jobs," Journal of Applied Psychology, 45 (1961), pp. 1-10.

[50] E. Lawler and J. Suttle, Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1972, pp. 265-287.

[51] K. Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 28.

[52] E. Locke, "The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction," ed M. Dunnette, Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976), p. 1309.

4.1.3. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Herzberg collected data in a work organization to formulate his theory of motivation--"the motivation-hygiene theory."[53] He interviewed 203 accountants and engineers about their jobs. Using a critical incident research methodology, each respondent was asked to describe events at work which had resulted in high satisfaction or high dissatisfaction. The interviewers through analyzing the transcripts attempted to discover the factors which led to the respondents' responses and the causes of these responses.

Herzberg found that positive events were dominated by references to intrinsic aspects of work itself including: achievement; the possibility of growth; responsibility; advancement and recognition. They were job motivators since they served the individual's need for growth and development. In contrast, negative events were influenced by extrinsic factors including: interpersonal relations; status; job security; working conditions; company policy and administration; and supervision, all of which caused dissatisfaction when they fell below a certain level. The satisfaction of these factors led to a neutral point rather than causing positive job attitudes. Herzberg designated them "hygiene factors" which prevented dissatisfaction when present but were not "motivators" in themselves. On the other hand, when hygiene factors are not gratified, dissatisfaction results.

As a result of his research Herzberg concluded that "factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct

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[53] F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: Wiley, 1959).

from the factors which lead to job dissatisfaction."[54] To account for this Herzberg referred to two levels of need in man: the biological or physical needs stemming from his animal nature and the psychological needs arising from his human nature. The "satisfiers" or "motivators" notably achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement are intrinsic in the work and are related to the satisfaction of workers' psychological needs. The "dissatisfiers" or "hygiene" factors including company policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, status and security are extrinsic to the work and are related to the satisfaction of workers' physical needs.

A lot of research studies have been undertaken to test the validity of the two factor theory and both supportive[55] and non-supportive[56] findings have been reported.

Wolf noted that confusing terminology had been developed by various researchers and used interchangeably for "hygiene factors" and "motivators."[57]

A further criticism is related to the research methodology used. Ewen pointed out that the limitations of the Herzberg study was related to the narrow range of occupations used; no evidence was presented in support of validity and reliability; and no measures of overall job satisfaction were included.[58] Burke found that Herzberg's motivational and hygiene factors

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[54] F. Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" ed. Dalton and Lawrence, Motivation and Control in Organizations (Homewood Illinois: Irwin Dorsey, 1971), p. 318.

[55] V. M. Bachman, "The Herzberg Controversy," Personnel Psychology, 1971, pp. 155-189.

[56] D. A. Whitsett and E. K. Winslow, "An Analysis of Studies Critical of the Motivation-Hygiene Theory," Personnel Psychology, 1967, pp. 391-416.

[57] M. G. Wolf, "Need Gratification Theory: A Theoretical Reformulation of Job Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Job Motivation," Journal of Applied Psychology, 54 (1970, pp. 87-94.

were not unidimensional nor independent.[59] P. F. Wernimont suggested that:

> The controversy surrounding the unidimensional versus two-factor assertions about employee job satisfaction seems more suitable for a logical and semantic analysis and solution rather than to an empirical or research solution.[60]

Wernimont drew a fine distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic factors which he described as "feelings about" and "feelings of" respectively. He held that all intrinsic factors are internal feelings while extrinsic factors are external situations. He pointed to a significant connection between the two: "For a given individual, feeling about, about company policy, about working conditions, etc. are the causes of feelings of, of recognition of responsibility, etc."[61] This suggested a crucial link which is missing in Herzberg's theory. Graen found that many of the items derived from Herzberg's theory did not appear to belong together.[62] In a further study he found that there was no support whatever for the two factor theory of motivation.[63] Soliman noted that most of the studies using the Herzberg technique supported the motivation-hygiene theory while most which used a different method did not.[64] Vroom postulated that bias is injected because individuals are more likely to attribute the causes of job satisfaction as

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[59] R. J. Burke, "Are Herzberg's Motivators and Hygienes Unidimensional?" Journal of Applied Psychology, L (1966), pp. 317-321.

[60] P. F. Wernimont, "A Systems View of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 56, No. 2 (1972), p. 173.

[61] Loc. cit.

[62] G. B. Graen, "Motivator and Hygiene Dimensions for Research and Development Engineers," Journal of Applied Psychology, L (1966), p. 563.

[63] G. B. Graen, "Testing Traditional and Two-Factor Hypotheses Concerning Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, LII (1968), pp. 366-371.

[64] H. Soliman, "Motivation-Hygiene Theory of Job Attitudes: An Empirical Investigation," Journal of Applied Psychology 54 (1970), pp. 452-461.

coming from themselves (motivators) and to attribute their dissatisfaction to factors in the work environment (hygienes).[65] These results as a whole provide support for traditional theory and supported the findings of Friedlander[66] and Wernimont[67] that intrinsic factors are more important contributors to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction than extrinsic factors.

A further criticism is related to the fact that different researchers have developed different versions of the theory. King found that five distinct versions of the model have been stated or implied by various researchers.[68] According to the principle of multiple operationalism a hypothesis is validated only if it is supported by two or more different methods of testing where each method contains specific idiosyncratic weaknesses, but where they collectively eliminate alternative hypotheses.[69] The application of this principle to the three versions of the theories indicated that none of them has been validated.

Waters and Waters in a study including 160 females found that the motivators performed as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, and hygiene factors were related to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The data

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[65]V. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: Wiley, 1964).

[66]F. Friedlander, "Job Characteristics as Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers," Mournal of Applied Psychology, XLVIII (L964), pp. 388-392.

[67]P. F. Wernimont, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, L (1966), pp. 41-50.

[68]N. King, "Clarification and Evaluation of the Two Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction," Psychology Bulletin, LXXIV (1970), pp. 18-32.

[69]E. J. Webb, D. T. Campbell, R. D. Schwartz, and L. Sechrest, Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966).

indicated that there is little support for the two-factor theory proposed by Herzberg.[70]

Herzberg, in the face of these and many other studies, tried hard to verify the Motivation-Hygiene theory and cited numerous studies carried out by various authors who verified his "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers."[71] He found that the only factor which does not always act in the predicted way is personal relationships with peers and subordinates. Occasionally it showed up as a motivator but in the majority of cases as a hygiene factor. Consistent with his predictions in 1959, company policy, administration and supervision were found to be the most frequent causes of job dissatisfaction.

Atchison and Lefferts used Herzberg's method to measure job satisfaction and the factors developed in predicting turnover among pilots.[72] The results showed that Herzberg's motivator factors with some other factors proved to distinguish very well between those officers who stayed and those who left.

Hunt, in an interesting article, discussed job satisfaction and the factors related to it. He considered that to satisfy Herzberg's motivators, the entire work situation may need to be restructured. He also claimed that his consulting experience revealed that most people do not know what they want from a work situation. Yet, all the research using the Herzberg theory

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[70] L. K. Waters and C. W. Waters, "Correlates of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction Among Female Clerical Workers, Journal of Applied Psychology, LIII (1969), pp. 388-391.

[71] F. Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland: World Publishing, 1966).

[72] T. J. Atchison and E. A. Lefferts, "The Prediction of Turnover using Herzberg's Job Satisfaction Technique," Personal Psychology, XXV (1972), pp. 53-64.

required people to identify their own needs. Further, the theory does not make provision for individual differences.[73]

In support of this, Gruenfeld and Weissenberg found substantial differences between analytical people who were able to behave independently of organizational constructs and those who were dependent on the interpersonal and structural-technical variables of the organization. The two groups perceived the potential rewards differently. They suggested that the controversy surrounding the Herzberg theory may stem from his failure to consider individual differences.[74]

From the above, it seems that the next step would be to reject the theory. Perhaps this would be unwise as the theory does represent an original attempt to explain work behavior and despite its weaknesses, some support does exist. As Hoy and Miskel stated:

> We take the position that the theory provides a good starting point for further development and research, if the following procedures are followed:
> 1. specifically state a version of the theory that is acceptable;
> 2. elaborate the number of motivation and bygiene variables;
> 3. allow for individual differences; and
> 4. eliminate or lessen the concept of unidimensionality.[75]

4.1.4. Alderfer's ERG Theory. Alderfer's ERG theory seeks to establish "human needs in organizational settings" and is a more recently proposed

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[73] J. W. Hunt, "Job Satisfaction and the Organization," Personnel Management, Vol. X, No. 2 (May, 1972), pp. 29-34.

[74] L. W. Gruenfeld and P. Weissenberg, "Field Independence and Articulation of Sources of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, LIV (1970), pp. 424-426.

[75] Hoy and Miskel, op. cit., p. 108.

motivation approach.[76] Alderfer reduced Maslow's five categories into three need categories: existence (E); relatedness (R); and growth (G).

Existence is similar to Maslow's physical and safety needs and in organizations is characterized by a need for good working conditions, fringe benefits and adequate pay. Relatedness is similar to Maslow's safety, social and certain esteem needs. It includes all those things that involve interpersonal relationships with others in the work place. Growth is similar to Maslow's self-actualization and certain ego esteem needs and involves a person's efforts toward creative or personal growth on the job which may result in new capabilities being developed.

ERG theory is based on the following principles: the less each level of need has been satisfied, the more it will be desired; the more lower level needs have been satisfied, the greater the desire for higher level needs; and the less higher level needs have been satisfied, the more lower level needs will be desired.

A number of studies have been undertaken which give stronger support for ERG theory than for Maslow's need hierarchy theory.[77] It was concluded that need satisfaction is perhaps most appropriately conceptualized as a global construct--a general state of the organism which may be greater than the sum of its parts.[78]

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[76] C. P. Alderfer, Existence, Relatedness and Growth (New York: Free Press, 1972).

[77] Ibid., p. 124.

[78] C. P. Schneider and C. P. Alderfer, "Three Studies of Measures of Need Satisfaction in Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1973, pp. 489-505.

A number of researchers view ERG theory as the most current, valid and researchable theory of motivation based on the "need" concept. However, it must be realized that because it is a relatively new theory there have been few studies undertaken to critically evaluate it.

4.1.5. Summary of Content Theories. As mentioned earlier, the general concept of Maslow's theory had a seminal effect on the theories and research of others. This was apparent in the case of Frederick Herzberg whose specific theory of job motivation based on empirical research had ideological similarities to Maslow's more general theory.[79] The main similarities between their theoretical models are indicated diagrammatically by J. G. Hunt and J. W. Hill[80] in Diagram 2.

Hunt and Hill drew attention to some important considerations in relation to these two models.[81] The first was to determine whether there is a positive relationship between the models and the accomplishment of organizational objectives, for example superior performance, lower turnover and lower absenteeism of workers. They pointed out that there was little empirical evidence relating Maslow's model to performance and only two studies based on Herzberg's model which attempted to measure performance independently of the respondents estimate. Although these two studies pointed to higher performance as more "motivators" are provided in the job, Hunt and Hill considered that insufficient data were presented to gauge the

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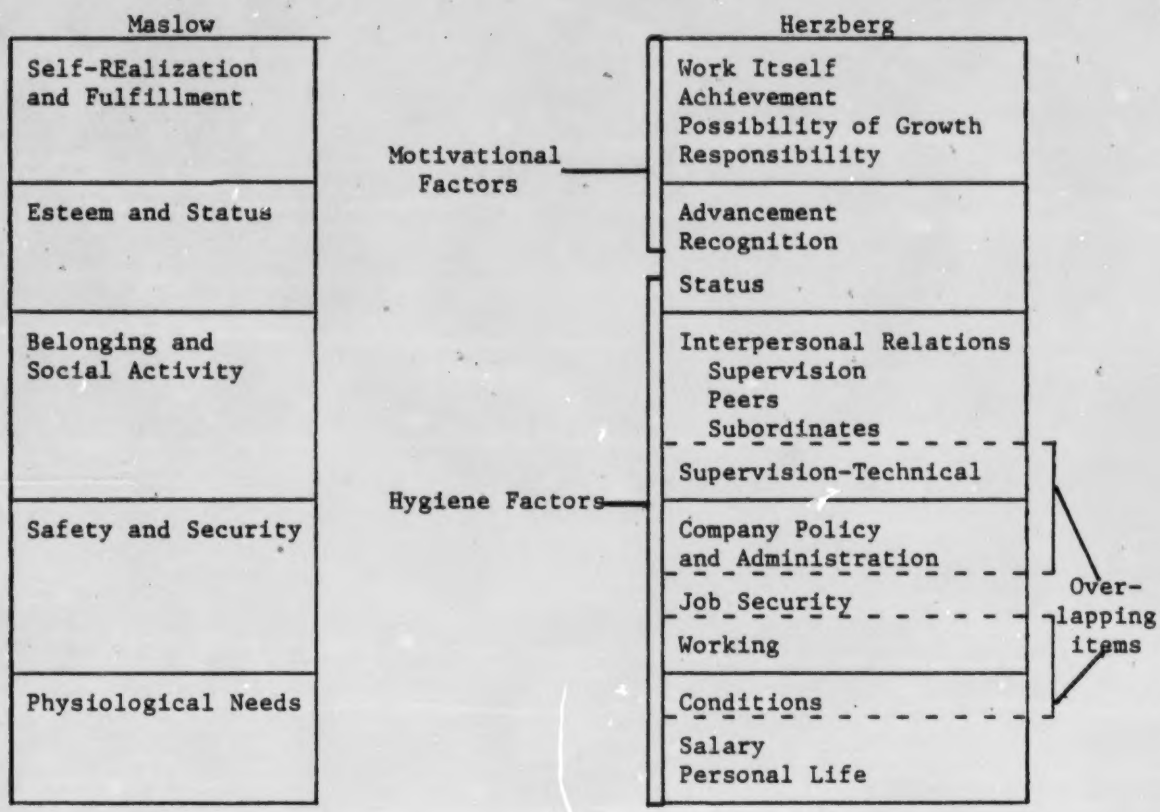
[79] F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: Wiley, 1959).

[80] J. G. Hunt and J. W. Hill, "The New Look in Motivational Theory for Organizational Research," eds. G. W. Dalton and P. R. Lawrence, Motivation and Control in Organizations (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin and Dorsey, 1971), p. 342.

[81] Dalton and Lawrence, op. cit., pp. 343-344.

Diagram 2: Maslow's Need-Priority Model Caompared with Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Model



adequacy of the experimental design and performance measures. Their conclusion was that Herzberg's two-factor theory may be related to turnover and performance but present studies were open to serious criticisms.

Neither model, Hunt and Hill asserted, necessarily indicated a positive relationship between individual need satisfaction and the achievement of organizational goals.[82] Workers may for example receive greater need satisfaction by concentrating on quality rather than quantity in production even though the organizational objective might be increased production.

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[82] Dalton and Lawrence, loc. cit.

Neither theory as it stands can resolve the problem of individual differences in motivation.

Maslow conceded that his model may not hold for persons with particular experiences. Herzberg identified seven categories of workers based on the extent to which they are influenced by motivator and/or hygiene factors but does not relate them empirically to actual job performance.

Another basic problem with the Maslow and Herzberg formulations is that they consider individuals or groups of individuals without regard to the structural content within which behavior takes place and sentiments are formed. An individual's feelings regarding achievement, advancement and recognition cannot be fully understood except within the parameters of his job and his opportunities within the organization.

There are differences as well as similarities between the two models considered. Maslow, for example, assumed that any need can be a motivator if it is largely unsatisfied while Herzberg considered that only higher order needs serve as motivators and that workers may have unsatisfied needs in both the hygiene and motivator areas at the same time.

There are also important differences between Maslow's theory and ERG theory such as: the ERG theory indicated that more than one need may be operative at any one time; and Maslow's theory was based upon the satisfaction-progression approach whereas ERG theory incorporated both a satisfaction progression approach and a frustration-regression component.

So each of these content theories emphasized the basic concepts of needs, satisfiers-dissatisfiers and desires, even though individual behavior was explained from a slightly different perspective. In the next section process theories of motivation are considered.

4.2. Process Theories

Process theories are concerned with understanding of why people choose a particular behavioral pattern to accomplish work goals. Two major process theories, expectancy theory and equity theory, will be considered in this section.

4.2.1. Expectancy Theory. Building on the earlier work of Tolman,[83] Lewin,[84] and Atkinson,[85] Vroom formulated a cognitive model of motivation that he called expectancy theory.[86] His model is based on three key concepts: expectancy which is the perceived belief that one's efforts will lead to successful performance; valence which is the degree of attractiveness or desirability that an individual attaches to a reward; and instrumentality is the belief that a given performance is essential for attaining a given reward or satisfying a valence.

The underlying assumption of the expectancy model is that choices are lawfully related to psychological events occurring with behavior. Therefore, the basic relationship is that motivation, or propensity to start and maintain behavior, is the product of expectancy, valence and instrumentality, i.e., if workers think that performance will lead to the attainment of one or more of their personal goals (valences, needs), they will tend to be

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[83] E. C. Tolman, Purposive Behavior in Animals and Men (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1932).

[84] K. Lewin, The Conceptual Representation and Management of Psychological Forces (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1938).

[85] J. W. Atkinson, An Introduction to Motivation (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1964).

[86] V. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: Wiley, 1964).

high performers. On the other hand, if they view low performance as a path to goal achievement, they will tend to be low performers.

Mitchell reviewed literature in psychology and revealed high interest and broad support for the expectancy theory in psychology.[87] Vroom's model emphasizes individual differences in motivation and makes possible the examination of very explicit relationships between motivation and the accomplishment of organizational goals. Hunt and Hill consider Vroom's model appears to offer great potential for understanding motivation in organizations.[88]

4.2.2. Equity Theory. Adams[89] developed and tested equity theory which encompassed the ideas that: if individuals perceived a discrepancy amongst the amount of rewards they received and their efforts, they are motivated to reduce it; and the greater the discrepancy the more the individuals are motivated to reduce it. Adams postulated that individual employees compared inputs and outcomes with other workers of roughly equal status. If the two ratios are not in balance, the individual is motivated to reduce the inequity.

The majority of research on equity theory has focused on wage or pay levels as the basic outcome and effort or performance level as the primary

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[87] T. R. Mitchell, "Expectancy Models of Job Satisfaction, Occupational Preference, and Effort: A Theoretical, Methodological and Empirical Appraisal," Psychological Bulletin, 81 (1974), pp. 1053-1077.

[88] Hunt and Hill, op. cit., pp. 337-344.

[89] J. S. Adams, "Toward an Understanding of Inequity," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, November, 1963, pp. 422-436.

input factor.[90] The limited research to date has generally been supportive, although non-supportive research has also been reported.

4.2.3. Summary. The major difference between expectancy theory and equity theory is that: in the former a person would choose a level of work effort that would possibly maximize his or her outcomes or rewards; in the latter a person would choose a level of work effort that was equitable to some comparison or reference person.

In the next section, reinforcement theory is considered.

4.3. Reinforcement Theory

Space will preclude the discussion of this topic in detail. Skinner was the foremost worker in the field of reinforcement theory.[91] This approach has a number of assumptions: first it is claimed that an individual is basically passive and merely mediates the relationship between the forces acting on him or her and their output; second this theory rejected the notion that behavior is based on an individual's "needs," "drives," or "goals" because they believed that such aspects are unobservable and hard to measure--attention is focused on behavior itself which can be observed and measured. They stated that a relatively permanent change in behavior of an individual results from reinforced behavior or experience. There are many implications of this theory and space precludes a discussion of these.

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[90] P. S. Goodman and A. Freedman, "An Examination of Adam's Theory of Inequity," Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1971, pp. 271-288.

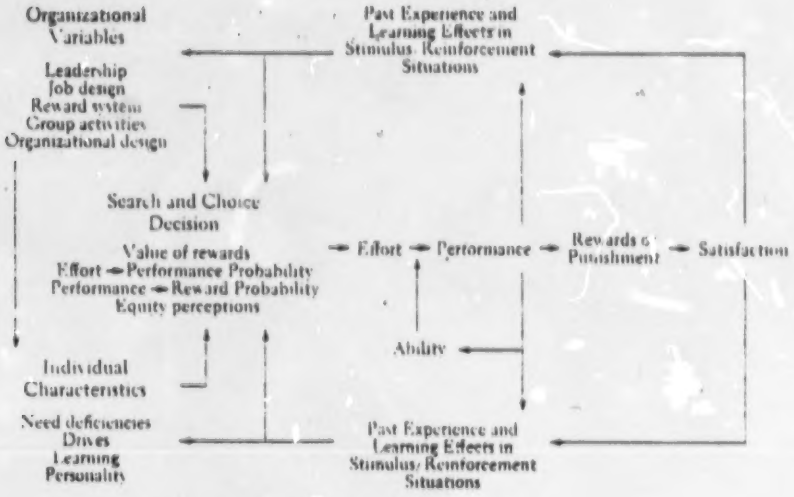
[91] B. F. Skinner, Contingencies of Reinforcement (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969).

5. AN INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATIONAL MODEL

As shown, the literature on motivation as a determinant of individual behavior is both diverse and controversial. Clearly there is as yet no general widely accepted theory of human motivation. Such a theory would almost certainly have to include both external and internal variables.

Ivancevich presented an integrative model which helps to integrate the various concepts that have been considered in this paper.[92]

An Integrative Motivation Model



This model will be valuable to leaders in any organizational setting as it tries to list the many factors that effect a person's motivation. Hence, a strategy can be developed through careful analysis so that the process of motivation can be influenced. As Ivancevich stated:

> Managers cannot control all factors in this process; however, through increased knowledge and the ability to diagnose the various factors affecting an individual's behavior, a better

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[92] Ivancevich, op. cit., p. 125.

understanding can be gained concerning the manager's role in determining and influencing the process of motivation in their organization.[93]

6. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Miner and Dachler recognized a difference between personal job satisfaction and worker motivation. In a study in 1970, Wernimont et al also drew a distinction between them.[94] They aimed to determined what differences technical employees saw in factors affecting job effort distinct from job satisfaction. Approximately 775 scientists ranked factors including personal accomplishment, praise for effective work, getting along with fellow workers and receiving credit for ideas as giving greater personal satisfaction. On the other hand factors that were more effective in motivation or job effort included being clearly aware of what is expected of one, having a capable supervisor, having challenging work and participating in decision-making. As a result of these two sets of factors they warn against using the terms "motivation" and "job satisfaction" interchangeably. A similar distinction between these terms is made by M. Wolf in his "Need Gratification Theory."[95]

A more intensive study of motivation as an organizational concept resulting in acceptable practical proposals for satisfying and motivating workers and simultaneously meeting the goals of organizations presents

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[93] Ivancevich, loc. cit.

[94] P. F. Wernimont, P. Toren, and H. Kapell, "Comparison of Sources of Personal Satisfaction and of Work Motivation," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 54. No. 1 (1970), pp. 91-95.

[95] M. G. Wolf, "Need Gratification Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 54, No. 1 (1970), pp. 87-94.

itself as one of the great challenges of our time. Today a better educated workforce, often supported by strong union pressure, is demanding more interesting, challenging and satisfying conditions, including worker participation and job enrichment programs. Publicizing the results of recent and current successful experiments will serve to reinforce that demand. Reference is made to three of many schemes to more directly meet the needs of workers.

The Volvo vehicle manufacturing firm in Sweden has enhanced the dignity of its workers through job enrichment, job rotation and worker participation programs. In addition it is likely to eliminate the assembly line principle.

In the Ruhr Valley in Germany Krupps operates on a policy of co-determination involving equal representation of workers and shareholders on supervisory boards. Bonuses proportional to profits are paid to all workers. The firm has not had an official strike since 1930.

An important experiment in job enrichment schemes designed to lead to greater worker satisfaction and motivation is at present being conducted in South Australia. An advisory unit has been established to help organizations to redesign their structures in order to enrich and humanize work. If successful the results of this experiment are likely to have a snowballing effect on organizations in general, leading to an improvement in the quality of life both within organizations and the community generally.

As a result of numerous investigations in North America and countries in Europe, particularly Sweden, Norway, Holland and Germany, social scientists have identified a number of important determinants of job satisfaction. These factors or "psychological job requirements" include considerable elbow room or autonomy; opportunities for continuous learning

on the job; an optimal level of variety in work; work group identity resulting in help and respect from peers; a sense of an individual's work meaningfully contributing to social welfare and a job that allows for personal growth.[96]

Present indications are that this approach to management based on worker participation and job enrichment could revolutionize traditional organizations. Success within particular organizations will inevitably have a snowballing effect on others. The net result is likely to be more satisfied and better motivated workers. It has prospects of furthering human dignity, individual fulfillment and community well-being. South Australia has taken the lead in Australia in establishing a unit for improving the quality of work life. At present it represents an encouraging new sign amid the gloom of industrial strife, rapidly escalating costs and wages, and the shortage of products. Hopefully, in addition to satisfying and motivating workers one of its side benefits will be greater industrial rest.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Many of the previous concepts of the term "motivation" and the factors believed to motivate people in their tasks and activities have been modified or abandoned. Even now much of the accumulated literature including both theoretical considerations and empirical studies is contradictory and of little practical consequence. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Model spawned much research but little agreement on human motivation. His theory has

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[96] F. E. Emery, "Job Enrichment Schemes" (Seminar paper given in Adelaide on September 25-26, 1973).

been widely criticized but few would dispute the following statement made by him: "The psychology of motivation is tremendously complex and what has been unravelled with any degree of assurance is small indeed."[65]

The number of practical applications of motivational theory is large and each could be developed into a full volume. The relationship of motivation to such concepts as leadership, organizational design, job design, reward systems, goal setting, modified work weeks, morale, climate, and communication is worthy of serious research because one of the great challenges of organization and administration theorists and researchers is to endeavor to determine and ultimately quantify the interrelationships that exist among this wide range of organizational phenomena. A knowledge of the quantitative effects of all these variables on goal achievement, effectiveness and efficiency, coupled with their control, are the ultimate aims of organization theorists. This knowledge would at the same time offer solutions to what is often referred to as the great organizational dilemma, namely how management can provide for the fulfillment of workers' varied individual needs while simultaneously achieving the goals of the organization.

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[97]F. Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motive Employees," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 46 (January-February, 1968), pp. 53-62.